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ABSTRACT

Working women, at all levels, throughout the state of New Jersey were studied to determine what patterns, if any, exist among these women and to explore the implications of the findings for both the education and employment systems. Research was conducted in two stages: by a questionnaire distributed to 1,150 women employed by 23 institutions and businesses throughout the state, with a response rate of 48 percent; and through case studies of 25 women employed minimally as professionals. The project's hypothesis was that patterns would emerge directly correlated to occupational attainment. While much data were gathered concerning the working women's family background, social status, education, and vocational counseling (or lack of it), patterns were diverse and not clearly correlated to a degree to allow for either acceptance or rejection of the hypothesis. However, the findings show the importance and potency of vocational and career counseling in the development of curricula for the educational system. Additionally, findings related to early experiences as determinants of achievement point up a role for the educational system as an intervention mechanism. Funding for a second year would allow for the production of training and curriculum modules based on this study. (KC)

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FINAL REPORT

OF

TRACKING WORKING WOMEN

1980-81

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Disclaimer i

Abstract ii

Acknowledgements iv

Text 1

Introduction 1

Problem 1

Objectives 1

Definition of Terms 2

Related Research 3

Body of Report 7

Procedures Used 7

Findings 9

Interpretation of Findings 18

Dissemination Activities 21

Strategies to Eliminate Sex Bias and Sex-Role Stereotyping 21

Summary 22

Conclusions 22

Recommendations 23

Tables 24

Supplementary Pages 43

Bibliography 43

Questionnaire Copy 47

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ABSTRACT

DESCRIPTION OF PROJECT

(Use this sheet and no more than one other to type in single-spaced form a statement of project objectives, procedures that were followed, state and local priorities emphasized and the expected contribution of the project to vocational education.)

Tracking Working Women's objectives were to study working women, at all levels, throughout the State of New Jersey, determine what patterns, if any, exist among these women and to explore the implications of the findings for both the educational and employment systems. The research to accomplish the objectives was conducted in two stages and consisted of both a generally distributed questionnaire and case studies.

The questionnaire was distributed to 1,150 women employed by twenty-three (23) institutions and businesses throughout the State of New Jersey with a response rate of 48%. Twenty-five (25) women employed minimally as professionals, participated in the case studies.

The project's hypothesis was that patterns would emerge directly correlated to occupational attainment. While certain patterns did emerge, the results were not clearly correlated to a degree to allow for acceptance of the hypothesis. At the same time, the evidence was not strong enough to reject the hypothesis.

The findings are of importance to both business and education. The importance and potency of vocational and career counseling are of especial interest in the development of curricula for the educational system. Additionally, findings related to early experiences as determinants of achievement point up a role for the educational system as an intervention mechanism. Finally, the discovery of the attitudes shared in common by working women is important for both educators and employers.

Second-year funding from the Division of Vocational Education and Career Preparation will allow for development of training and curriculum modules to address these problems.

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TRACKING WORKING WOMEN

Final Report - July 30, 1981

TEXT

A. Introduction

1. Problem

Since World War II, American women in increasing numbers have entered the work force. The 1960's and '70's saw an acceleration of this trend and also witnessed women obtaining positions at higher levels than ever before. This relatively recent influx has focused attention on the economic, social and cultural barriers faced by working women. While much has been written on this subject, and action taken both by the educational systems and businesses to attempt to remove the barriers, little actual research data is available concerning women at all levels of employment.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to gather and analyze information on working women, at all skill levels, throughout the state of New Jersey. The data will prove useful to those in the educational system responsible for designing, administering and monitoring programs focused on providing students with the information and skills necessary to successfully compete in the work force. Businesses will also find the information useful as a data base for identifying and remedying identified barriers faced by women in their employ.

2. Objectives

In order to fulfill the project's purpose, the following specific objectives were developed.

- Research working women in the fields of business, the technologies, banking, education and health.
- Within these fields, obtain information on women working in jobs from those classified as semiskilled to those classified as managerial and executive.
- Based on the results obtained, determine what patterns, if any, exist among working women.

- If patterns exist, determine what elements, if any, in those patterns determine at what skill level in the work force women are positioned.

- Determine what elements in those patterns act as barriers to women in achieving different levels and what elements in those barriers are affected by education.

- Explore the implication of the research findings for employers.

- With second-year funding from the Division of Vocational Education and Career Preparation, make recommendations concerning curriculum changes, formulate new curricula, and field test the new programs with cooperation from the local school districts.

3. Definition of Terms Used

For the purposes of this study, definitions were designed for the different occupational levels being studied. The elements of the definitions utilize standard government classification systems. In some instances, employer classification systems differed in degree from the meanings we established, but distribution to employees was based on the terms established for the study. Classification levels used are as follows:

a. semiskilled jobs are those requiring little or no training other than that provided on the job. Examples include, but are not limited to, laborers, orderlies and nurses' aides.

b. skilled jobs are those requiring training of a formal nature. Such training is not usually available on the job and examples include machinists, secretaries, computer operators, welders, and technicians.

c. technical jobs are those requiring formal training for a position of a technical nature. Training required is usually a minimum of a two- or four-year degree and examples include technologists in any field, computer programmers, and systems analysts.

d. professional jobs usually require a minimum of a four-year degree and/or equivalent experience. Individuals employed as professionals possess decision making and organizational skills and are able to work with minimum supervision. Examples include human resource professionals, lawyers, accountants, nurses, teachers, doctors, and scientists.

e. managerial/supervisory/executive jobs encompass all the requirements outlined for professionals. Additionally, such jobs also entail decision making, managing, planning, and controlling responsibilities. Examples include supervisors, managers, vice-presidents, and directors.

4. Related Research or Background Information

The growing participation of women in the work force creates a need to determine both the experiences and contributions of this large segment of workers. Most of the theoretical and empirical data available on work force experience is derived from studies of male workers. The potentially different experience of female workers has largely gone unnoticed as a result of biases built into much of the research criteria.

While a man's occupation has always been considered central to his identity, a woman's role has been assumed to revolve around the "private" sphere of the home and family. Changing social and economic conditions brought more women into the "public" (male) sphere of activities. While the economic participation of women no longer represents a deviance from role expectation or in behavior, little concrete information is available concerning the patterns, if any, exhibited by working women. With almost 53% of the female population between the ages of 18 and 64 participating in the work force, more attention is being directed towards analyzing women's working experience in terms of identifying patterns and problems.

Differences in male-female contributions and labor force participation have been studied and explained in numerous terms. The natural (biological) and historical explanations of sexual inequalities and sex-role stereotyping are the most common factors in the literature. Information on historical and cultural background as the source of sex inequality was investigated by Giele and Smock (1978) while in 1974 Terry studied the interrelationship of fertility and female employment to determine the variables in role compatibility or lack of it.

International studies have explored the hypothesis that sexual inequality results from social inequalities and that achievement of higher socio-economic status by women would eliminate sexual inequalities. A United Nations Economic Commission study of the economic activities of men and women and of the socio-cultural determinants of their respective economic contribution stated that commonly held beliefs concerning higher female absenteeism and turnover are a myth. Furthermore, the study went on to point out that the assumption of feminine physical weakness appeared to be psychological rather than physical. While no definitive answers have been found, enough evidence has emerged to indicate the validity of the above cited hypotheses.

In their study of male/female stereotypes, Broverman, et al, (1973) observed that men and women respondents agreed on general characteristics and expectations of male-female roles. Men were perceived as more objective and independent, while women were seen as more sensitive and expressive. Buvinic (p. 17) found similar results with women being perceived as "nurturing, affiliative, and more able to learn and perform repetitive tasks." In general, the same expectations held true when self-perception was investigated. On the other hand, Mason, et al, (1975) found some indication that changes in female role perception occurred over the time period 1964-1974. Particular changes were noted in the areas of perceptions concerning education and employment levels attainable by women.

In a critical review of research on the validity of psychological differences between the sexes in the United States, Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) asserted that the assumed differences concerning abilities are not necessarily true. Their findings confirm that of all the areas in which the sexes are thought to be inherently different, only one, aggressive behavior, shows up at an early age (between 2 and 2½) in male children. Mathematical, analytical and verbal ability differences do not surface until much later (between the ages of 10 and 12) after socialization factors must be taken into account. Maccoby and Jacklin further state, with support from studies by King (1974) and Hutt (1972), that there are greater differences within each sex than there are between the sexes.

In general, studies on sex role stereotyping indicate that role concepts are internalized and are very resistant to change. Additionally, such beliefs have a great impact on the activities in which men and women engage and tend to greatly limit occupational options and choices for women.

The current study (Tracking Working Women) postulates that early life experience is one of four aspects that impact on adult females in the areas of directions, choices, and career decisions. The decisions made in adult life are potentially affected by a combination of family environment, parental expectations and roles, sibling influence, and intra- and extra-familial role models as well as by later experiences. Komarovsky (1971) contended that the pressures exerted by parents and peer groups on adolescent boys and girls result in reinforcing dependence in girls and aggressive independence in boys. Beren (1972) compared the socialization practices directed at boys and girls in childhood to determine the mother's influence on achievement.

Studies on the parental role model for women who had working or nonworking mothers indicated that women with working mothers were more likely to be career oriented. Additionally, Almquist and Angrist (1971) also found that working mothers exerted a positive influence for daughters. The maternal influence on attitudes towards women and work was also examined by Baruch (1972) who found that daughters with nonworking mothers tended to devalue the professional competence of women, while those with working mothers evaluated women's competence at a much higher level.

Entwistle (1972) investigated the views of adolescent boys and girls on women's work role to determine the effects of sex, race and social class on attitudes. The findings indicated that boys were more conservative concerning a woman's work role with the greatest difference in attitudes expressed in those between white middle class girls and boys. King (op. cit.) found that early socialization processes in both family and society greatly effect role expectation and self-perception.

Family structure, household size, patterns of authority, mother-daughter relationships, and parent-daughter relationships, as well as sibling birth order, were found to be potent factors in determining sex-typed behavior (Romney, in Beach, 1965). The same study also indicated that the firstborn child, whether a son or daughter, closely identifies with parental values.

Quinn and Williams (1978) found that the effects of parental attitudes proved most salient in the socialization process of young girls and women. The same source identified better and/or equal educational opportunities for girls as an important factor necessary to counter early teachings of sex-associated roles, role limitations, and other barriers. Education may, in fact, be the most effective means available to change their orientation. The differences in educational opportunities and quality of education for males and females are of international concern.

Worldwide, U.N. figures show that illiteracy is more widespread among female populations. The pattern is established that lower educational levels translate into lower skill levels and that masculine/feminine differentiation in areas of study reinforces traditional sex-role beliefs and, ultimately, career options.

While studying barriers to women's participation in post-secondary education, Ekstrom (1972) examined the attitudes and motivation of women themselves and their views on sex roles, education and careers to determine the sources of barriers to educational and career aspirations.

Both educational opportunities for women and access to educational areas previously closed to women have increased tremendously in recent years. Admissions and recruitment policies have now made it possible for women to enter into new career opportunities. This relatively new state of affairs is important as Burns (1978), Mott (1977), and numerous other sources clearly delineate the relationship between education and subsequent career opportunities and mobility.

Tracking Working Women also addresses two other areas, women at work and the effect of the adult family life experience. Differences between men and women in a variety of occupations is found in the literature. Most of the research in this area has concentrated on women in the Armed Services, the technologies, and on general trends of women in the labor force.

Much of the little information available on changing trends is only found in government publications such as those disseminated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Vetter and Stockburger (1977) and Beckett (1978) concentrated on identifying and studying racial differences in career opportunities and choices.

The dual roles of many working women and the congruence/noncongruence of family and career roles of women have also assumed importance. Some of the literature indicates conflict between the roles (Coser and Rakoff, 1973), while others attempt to discern and compare patterns of status, occupations, and education of married couples (Rawlings, 1978).

The issue of dual roles for women and the positive and negative effects on each of the roles will be a subject for study for a long time. Some of the questions addressed by this study concern what, if any, contradiction exists between

the home and career roles and what contribution to family institutions are being made by working women.

Other important factors include women's self-confidence, motivation and achievement. Deaux (1979), in a study of college women, concluded that women have lower levels of self-confidence than their contemporary male colleagues. In 1974, Kiesler found that women also expected less in terms of professional success and that these expectations negatively effected occupational attainment. Mednick, et al, (1975) examined external constraints on sex roles and limitations.

No one aspect of the variables discussed above has been singled out as the most important. This study researched the interrelationships of early and later experiences as determinants of adult behavior. Rapoport (1971) used similar indicators to study work patterns of married women in Great Britain, while Jencks, et al, (1979) examined similar early-later life experiences as determinants of economic success for males in the United States.

B. Body of Report

1. Procedures Used

After establishing and studying the parameters of the total population potentially available, it was decided to conduct the study statewide. Working women in different occupations, at different levels, and in diverse geographic locations were studied in order to obtain information from the widest spectrum possible.

Five generic classifications of employment were used: health services, education, banking, industry, and the technologies. Health services and education represented primarily service occupations considered traditionally female, while the other areas provided access to women, at certain levels, in "nontraditional" employment situations.

In order to determine what patterns and/or relationships, if any, determine the level at which women become employed, the study was conducted with women at different occupational levels. The levels ranged from those occupations classified as semiskilled through those classified as skilled, technical, professional, and managerial/supervisory/executive. These classifications were divided into a[illegible]ional finite categories for the analysis.

Hypothesizing that the interaction of education, background, current life style, and attitudes are the variables with the most impact, a questionnaire addressing those areas

was designed as the primary tool for research. The questionnaire was pretested to determine both the clarity of the questions and whether or not they were eliciting the information needed.

Twenty-five (25) women in different occupations and of diverse age, ethnic, economic, and racial backgrounds participated in the field test. After coding and analyzing the returns, a final instrument was designed with consultation and input from the College's Director of Institutional Research.

The selection of institutions and businesses was based on representativeness of different regions in New Jersey with an effort to utilize small, medium, and large employers. The employers themselves were used as the distribution mechanism. While the selection of companies was not, of itself, random, many of the employers distributed the questionnaires to a random sample of their female employees. This, combined with the rate of return, was felt to be widely distributed enough to allow for qualified inferences to the rest of the population.

Questionnaires were distributed anonymously with a coding system that allowed for identification of type of employer and geographic location. A total of 1,150 were distributed and the response rate was close to forty-eight (48%) percent (551). The response rate from women employed in health care was the highest, while responses from those in the technologies was lowest.

The questionnaires were coded and analyzed. Using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), data was generated indicating frequency of response for each variable and interrelationships between variables.

The second phase of the research utilized the case study approach. Five women, minimally at a professional level, were interviwed in each employment area.

The case studies focused on analyzing the experiences of women who achieved higher level positions. This was done in order to illuminate both the factors that contribute to success and the barriers prohibiting wider participation of women in the work force. In addition to the interview, each woman participating in the case studies was asked to fill out a questionnaire. The patterns delineated in the case studies were compared to the findings from the widely distributed questionnaire.

2. Findings

Interesting patterns and relationships became apparent as the data from the questionnaires was generated. For the purposes of this study, findings presented will consist of sample demographics, other selected frequency findings, and certain variables as related to respondents' occupational levels and job satisfaction. Case study findings will also be presented. Interpretation of findings, conclusions and recommendations are in later sections of this report.

The questionnaires were distributed to a total of 1,150 women employed at twenty-three (23) different facilities throughout the State of New Jersey. A total of 551 questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of forty-eight percent (48%).

The respondent population comprises a fairly representative sample of women of diverse age, race/ethnicity, background and experience. Twenty-five (25%) percent (135) of the women are between the ages of 25 and 30, while twenty-eight (28%) (154) are from 31-40 years of age. Table 1 provides a breakdown of ages for the respondent population. Responses in accordance with race/ethnicity are approximately in proportion to representation in the population of the State of New Jersey (see Table 2).

The women surveyed are, on the whole, well educated. Sixty-six (66%) percent of the sample have educational levels beyond high school, ranging from business or technical training to post-graduate education. Table 3 provides a breakdown of the responses on educational level.

Parent/childhood living environment was primarily in a two parent household. Seventy-eight (78%) percent of the population lived with both parents, while twelve (12%) percent grew up in a household headed by the mother. The remaining ten (10%) percent experienced a variety of childhood "family" environments. With a sample population born primarily between 1921 and 1963, this distribution is not surprising. A population weighted towards the higher end of this scale (born 1946-63) would probably exhibit a wider variety of family living situations. Therefore, any interpretations of the relationship between family environment and occupational attainment must be made cautiously.

Seventy-four (74%) percent (408) of the women left their parents' home between the ages of 18 and 25. Four (4%) percent still live at home, seven (7%) percent left prior to the age of 18, eight (8%) percent did not leave until after 25 years of age and seven (7%) percent of the respondents did not provide an answer to this question.

Twenty-six (26%) percent of the sample population never married, forty-nine (49%) percent are still married to their first husbands, nineteen (19%) percent are separated, widowed, or divorced and six (6%) are remarried. Of those who married, 61.4% married between the ages of 16 and 22, 34.1% married between the ages of 23 and 29, and 4.5% married after the age of 29. Fifty (50%) percent of the respondents have no children, 42% have no more than three children, and 8% have a family with more than three children (see Table 4).

Occupational classifications of the respondent population were, for purposes of questionnaire distribution, divided into five levels. Analysis of responses further divided the levels into seven classifications for a clearer delineation of our occupational categories. Distribution of responses showed that, of the respondent population, 6.7% are in semi-skilled jobs, 1.7% are in skilled, blue-collar occupations, 19.8% are in sales/clerical/office occupations, 33.4% are in technical or skilled white collar jobs, 14.4% hold positions as professionals requiring a four-year degree, 8.5% are in jobs as professionals requiring more than a four-year degree, 13.9% are supervisors/managers/executives, and 1.6% can not be classified within these definitions. Table 5 provides a breakdown of these levels and number of responses in each category.

Eight (8%) percent of the respondents indicated that they were victims of sexual harassment while in school. Of these, 83.3% did not report it and 16.7% did report the incident. Further questions dealing with the issue of sexual harassment in the work place showed that 76% of the respondents indicated that it is not difficult for women to keep relationships with male colleagues on a professional level while 43% responded that male employees find it difficult to keep sex out of any friendly relationship with co-workers and 58% indicated that sexually-oriented remarks and jokes are directed at females by their male colleagues (see Table 6).

Correlation of occupational levels to factors related to early life experience, education, personal background, and attitudes showed some interesting relationships. Examining age in relationship to occupational classification showed that the highest concentration in the field of sales/clerical/office occupations is in the age range 41-50 years old and that the lowest percentage of all those at this level (15%) is under 25 years of age.

While the smallest percentage of all those in office related occupations is in the under 25 years of age category, these women still represent 22.9% of all respondents in that age group. There are strong indications that women are finding more occupations available as options. This is especially true for younger women. Forty-six (46%) percent of those in technical occupations are in the age range 30 years and under. This represents 45.7% of those under 25 years of age and 39.8% of those 25-30.

Only 1.7% of the total sample are in blue collar occupations. Therefore conclusions, other than those which indicate that women are still underrepresented in these areas, are difficult to make. Table 7 provides an outline of the relationship of age to occupational classification.

The relationship between occupational levels of the respondents and other variables is crucial to this study. One of the major hypotheses state that the variables affecting background, education, attitudes and current life style interact to form discernable patterns among working women.

The beginning of independent living (defined as moving out of the parental home) does not vary significantly with occupational level. As most of the respondents lived with both parents while growing up, no significant differences were found in the relationship of childhood living arrangements to occupational achievement.

Relationships between father's educational level and respondents' occupational attainment showed some patterns. Seventy-eight (78%) percent of all the fathers had educational levels of high school or less.

Of those respondents indicating employment in semi-skilled, skilled, or office occupations, 90.7% of the fathers had educational levels of high school or less. At the technical/skilled white collar level, 30.7% of the respondents' fathers had educational levels greater than high school, while 31.1% of all fathers of respondents in occupations at the professional level, or greater, had educational levels greater than high school.

Similar results are found when mothers' educational levels are correlated with respondents' occupational attainment. Overall, 84.1% of the respondents indicated that mothers had educational levels of high school or less. Less than 2% of the mothers of respondents in semiskilled, skilled blue collar, or office occupations had achieved education beyond the high school level. Of those respondents employed in technical/skilled white collar, professional or managerial occupations, 19.7% indicated that their mothers had been educated beyond the high school level.

No significant findings are apparent in the relationship of respondents' occupational levels to parents' occupational levels. Of the 551 returns, 193 respondents indicated that their mothers did not work. Of these, 36.3% of the sample population are in occupations at the professional level or greater.

Fathers' attitudes towards working women showed surprising results. Overall, 32.7% of the fathers favored women working, while 47.3% objected to it. Of those who indicated that their fathers favored working women, 73.8% are in occupational classifications ranging from skilled white collar to managerial and executive. Surprisingly, 54.8% of all women in managerial positions indicated that their fathers objected to women working.

Perception of self as a working woman is directly correlated to occupational achievement. A total of 42.9% of the respondents perceived themselves as combining a family and work. Of these, 76.4% are in occupational classifications ranging from skilled white collar to managerial and executive. Of those who did not perceive themselves as working women, 64% are semi-skilled or engaged in clerical and office occupations.

Forty-eight point nine percent of the respondents indicated that there was no difference in the treatment of boys and girls in their family. Of these, 36.6% are in higher occupational classifications and 36.7% are employed as skilled white collar workers. Furthermore, this represents 52.1% of all respondents in occupational classifications of professional through managerial and executive and 51% of all those employed in skilled white collar occupations. The most striking difference in parental treatment of male/female children was the area of household chores with education being second (see Table 8).

Table 9 provides a breakdown of respondents' educational achievement in relation to occupational status. An interesting anomaly occurs at the supervisory/managerial/executive level where 55.4% of these respondents indicate educational levels less than a four-year college degree.

A total of 255 respondents (46.3%) attended college. This is well above the average of 19% for the total United States population. Of these, 45.1% majored in the humanities and social sciences, while 12.5% studied math and sciences and 12.5% concentrated in teaching, guidance, and/or social work (see Table 10). No significant differences are apparent across occupational classifications.

Of those who indicated reasons for not attending college, 33.6% were not interested and 38% could not afford it. Reasons considered traditional for women not attending college, marriage and lack of parental support, were rated quite low, 13.2% and 5.2% respectively. As expected, those who did not attend college are concentrated, for the most part, in the lower occupational classifications. Interestingly, 38.8% of those who did not complete college are employed in technical/skilled white collar occupations.

Whether or not they attended college, 52.5% of the respondents indicated that parents strongly favored their attending school, while only 2.8% stated that their parents were strongly against college education. For professionals, professionals requiring more than a four-year degree, and supervisors/managers/executives, 75.3%, 86%, and 59.2% respectively indicated that parents strongly favored college education. Only 20.7% of those employed in semi-skilled positions and 33.3% of those in clerical/office occupations had parents strongly favoring higher education (see Table 11).

Overall occupational levels, 78.1% of the women stated that teachers considered female education as important as male education, while 21.9% indicated that male education was treated as more important. Responses that showed female education as more important were virtually nonexistent. No significant differences are apparent at the various occupational levels.

Questions relating occupational achievement to available and encouraged areas of study showed some interesting relationships. Approximately 34% of all respondents were encouraged to study humanities, 36% science and math, 2.2% technical areas, 37% typing and steno, and 1.5% shop. Those encouraged to study science, math and technical subjects are concentrated in occupational classifications ranging from skilled white collar to managerial and executive while those steered towards typing and steno are more frequently found at occupational levels of unskilled and office occupations.

Overall, less than 50% of the respondent population received formal assistance in making a vocational/career choice. Of the 394 responses indicating assistance (double-counting involved), 51.8% of the assistance was in the area of traditional careers. Overwhelmingly, those receiving vocational assistance are employed at levels of skilled white collar or above.

Forty-nine point nine percent of the sample population have no children. Of these, 39.8% are at levels as professionals or higher and 37.9% are employed in skilled, white collar/technical positions. Of respondents with children, 46.7% reported not working while children were young. Women

employed in semi-skilled, blue collar, or clerical office occupations represent 44.2% of this category, while those working as professionals plus account for 22.8%. The remaining 33% are those employed in technical/skilled white collar occupations. Of those who worked while their children were young, 44.1% are employed at levels as professionals or greater, 26.9% are skilled, white collar and 29% are semi-skilled, skilled, blue collar or office/clerical workers.

Sixty four point four (64.4%) percent of the married respondents indicated that their husbands fully favored women working. Higher percentages of favoring were found among those women employed at levels ranging from professional to managerial/executive (see Table 12).

The relationship of respondents occupations to husbands occupations indicated that there is some correlation between spouses' level of occupational attainment. Husbands of most respondents are at job levels equal to or greater than that in which the woman is employed. At the professional level, requiring more than a four-year degree, 58.6% of the women reported that their husbands were in jobs at the same level, while 41.8% of those employed as managers or executives made similar reports.

As expected, 57.3% of all respondents are employed in occupations that can be categorized as traditional. Of these, 31.5% are in clerical/office occupations and 35.1% are in technical/skilled white collar occupations. Of those in non-traditional occupations, 22.2% are technical/skilled, white collar, 27.3% are professionals requiring more than a four-year degree and 30.3% are managers/supervisors/executives (see Table 13).

On the basis of 522 valid responses, 73.2% stipulated self as the major influence on career choice. No significant variation was found across occupational levels.

Across all occupational levels, sole income or second income was ranked as the most important factor for working by over 50% of the respondents. Significantly, where income did not appear to be a factor, 27% of the sample rated self-fulfillment as the most important reason for working, while 30% of the respondents ranked this aspect second. Of these, 79.4% are employed in occupations ranging from technical/skilled white collar to supervisory/managerial/executive.

Occupational status was found to be directly correlated to whether or not women would choose to work. Over 70% of those employed in jobs classified from skilled/white collar

to managerial indicated they would work if given the choice, while under 50% of those employed at the other occupational levels made a similar choice.

Overall, 36.2% of those married felt that employment had not effected their relationships with their husbands, while 38.6% indicated that full-time employment had a positive effect on these relations. A positive effect on relations with spouses was stated by 34.2% of those in clerical/office occupations, 35.7% of those in skilled/white collar jobs, 54% of those employed as professionals, 64.9% of those professionals requiring more than a four-year degree, and 39.9% of those classified as supervisory/managerial/executive. Of those in the latter classification, 35.6% indicated that their full-time employment had adversely affected their relationships with their husbands (see Table 14).

Of those respondents with children, 35.3% indicated that full-time employment had no affect on their relations with their children, while 30.2% felt it had an adverse affect and 34.5% indicated a positive affect. No clear correlation was found across occupational classifications.

Regardless of occupational level, the respondent population consistently rated itself as better than average or exceptionally good in those skills often viewed as keys to achievement, e.g., speaking, writing, decision-making, problem-solving and leadership abilities. For those women employed in occupational classifications ranging from professional to managerial/executive, 75 to 85% rated themselves as having good skills in these areas (see Tables 15-19).

On most of the attitudinal variables, no correlation was found between occupational status and attitude. Almost without exception, similar attitudes were expressed by women at all occupational levels.

On job-related attitudinal variables, more negative opinions were expressed by those women who had achieved higher occupational levels. While the differences are not very significant, they may be attributable to the accepted fact that fewer women have achieved high occupational status and are less acceptable at these levels.

Overall, 79.4% of the respondents indicated that it was somewhat to be very true that women had to be "doubly smart" to compete for career advancement, while 65.9% felt that women are consulted less often on policy decisions and 70% stated that their capabilities are not fully utilized.

On the latter variable, women in jobs ranging from skilled/white collar to managerial/executive more often felt that their capabilities were utilized.

Of the total sample population, 52% indicated that it was largely to definitely untrue that having a job and a family do not go together well and 82.9% felt that it was largely to definitely untrue that working women do not have as happy a family life as nonworking women. Table 20 provides a list of the attitudinal variables and the responses.

The personal factors of education, abilities and hard work were ranked as the most important factors in contributing to success by the respondents.

Other interesting relationships were found in the correlation of job satisfaction with other variables. Of the total sample, 63% indicated that they were largely to highly satisfied with their jobs, while 22% stated they were somewhat satisfied and only 15% indicated job dissatisfaction at any level.

A total of 254 members of the respondent population did not attend college. Where obvious individual choice was involved in this choice, e.g., not interested, high job satisfaction was found (69% of those satisfied with their jobs did not attend college because they were not interested). Eighty-two (82%) percent of those highly satisfied felt that teachers treated male and female education equally, while 79% of those largely satisfied reported similar results.

A total of 202 women received vocational assistance regarding traditional careers. Of these, 67.4% indicated high job satisfaction, while 32.6% showed some measure of job dissatisfaction. No relationship was found between job satisfaction and educational exposure to occupational areas or the role of work study. Only 72 respondents indicated that role models played a part in vocational choice, but, of these, 84.8% demonstrated high job satisfaction. Counseling, summer jobs and part-time work had minimal impact on job satisfaction for the respondent population.

A correlation was found between parental attitudes towards higher education and job satisfaction. Eighty-four point seven percent of the respondents indicated some level of job satisfaction. Of these, 92.3% reported parental attitudes as strongly favoring college.

Job satisfaction is not significantly affected by husbands' attitudes towards the woman working. Here again are some possible indications that individual choice is the primary determinant of satisfaction.

Sole income is ranked a the most important reason for working by 33.6% of the women regardless of job satisfaction. When sole income is of primary or secondary importance, the women surveyed are not working in jobs that are dissatisfying. Of the women who indicated self-fulfillment as a reason for working (ranked 1 or 2), 85.2% responded as being satisfied with their jobs.

Seventy-five (75%) percent responded that they would work regardless of the indicated levels of satisfaction. The figures were somewhat higher for those who are satisfied, but not significantly so. Thirty-eight (38%) percent of the respondents indicated high levels of job dissatisfaction, while 62% experienced mid to low levels of satisfaction when discrimination was entered as a variable.

As outlined in the methodology, case studies were also part of the research process. Five (5) women in each of the occupational areas (banking, education, industry, health services and technologies) were interviewed. Those included in this phase were employed at a minimum of a professional level. Tables 21-27 provide an outline of the participants in the case studies by age, race/ethnicity, education and area of study in high school. Experience with sexual harassment, discrimination and reasons for working are also included.

Respondents in the case study felt education was a prime factor for professional advancement. Although a liberal arts education was received by a large percentage interviewed, these participants also recommended specific skill training as a prerequisite for achievement.

Repeatedly, flexibility, common sense and use of independent decision-making skills were cited as factors for success. Additional important advice included learning cooperation, becoming a team member and learning compromising skills without sacrificing integrity. The characteristics of risk-taking, perserverance, endurance, high energy and confidence were also cited as recommendations for achievement.

All those interviewed were concerned with the dual role obligations of homemaker and career person. For those married, the concerns revolved around juggling the roles, not getting caught in the superwoman syndrome and still finding time for self.

The single women interviewed unanimously reported a desire for a balance of family and career, but, at the same time, expressed concerns about the ability to perform all roles well. Additional factors for the single women include the conscious decision to postpone marriage and family for the achievement of educational and/or professional goals. Another prevalent concern was the potential interruption of career for raising children once intermediate goals have been attained. The possible resolution of this conflict was seen as crucial for future planning and life-style considerations.

Goal setting was seen as the "key" to success for designing and implementing one's life structure. For these women, concrete and definitive plans were set and followed through.

Although the participants generally indicated that sex discrimination existed throughout their career histories, it was also felt concomitantly that women should aid in setting priorities for other women in the working environment. Never crying on the job and never using gender as an excuse were also seen as important.

The by-laws for working women to gain equal opportunity are seen as carrying oneself with dignity and maintaining integrity within the system. Existing within the system without compromising individual values is seen as crucial.

All case study participants saw role models and mentors as important factors for success. Assertive behavior, creativity, and critical thinking are all recommended for achieving success goals as defined by society.

Overall, advice is to prepare oneself for change by updating skills, that will help with upward mobility and to prepare oneself for both psychological and economic independence.

3. Interpretation of Findings

In a study of this nature, any interpretation of findings must be done cautiously. As the sample was not chosen completely randomly, only qualified inferences to the remainder of the population are possible. Additionally, any extension of findings to other populations, e.g., girls and women still attending school, must be modified by the cohort effect.

The hypothesis for this study postulated that the variables of family background, education, current life patterns and attitudes interacted as a determinant of what level in the work force women became positioned. While some evidence emerged to support this hypothesis, the documentation is far from overwhelming. Even more interestingly, overall patterns common to

working women regardless of occupational level became apparent.

Most patterns that are attributable to occupational levels are found in the areas of background and education. Additionally, the turning point for the patterns occupationally related is found among those employed at the technical/skilled white collar level. As this level represents the beginning point for occupational success as defined for the purposes of this study, it is not surprising that differences in results would revolve around this level.

Indications were found that more occupational options are available to women and/or that women are consciously deciding to take advantage of occupations in fields other than those traditionally available for large numbers of women. Younger women (as outlined under Findings) have moved away from office/clerical occupations and are finding employment within the higher levels of the occupational scale.

For men, educational attainment has always been correlated to occupational achievement and, to some degree, to parental educational levels. For the women in this study, those who have achieved employment at the higher end of the classification scale and, by definition, higher educational levels were those who had also had parents with higher educational achievement. Although relatively few of the respondents have parents with education beyond high school, the relationship for those who do is similar to that found for men indicating the possible potency of family background. The information available is not significant enough to unreservedly make this assertion, but enough evidence exists to consider the possibility.

The impact of vocational counseling and areas of study in high school on occupational attainment is very strong for the respondent population. The findings in this area correlate with the findings of Quinn and Williams where they identified education as a powerful tool for both counteracting early sex-related socialization and providing the educational atmosphere necessary to allow choice in occupational areas.

Where vocational counseling was provided for the respondent population, it was primarily for the employment considered traditionally female and its impact is reflected in the primarily traditional employment of the sample. When encouraged to study other than traditionally feminine subject areas, members of the study sample attained higher occupational status.

While sexual harassment was not identified as a problem during education, respondents clearly identified male behavior patterns associated with sexual harrasment as a factor in the work place. This finding has implications for both the educational and business systems. The educational system can play

an important role in shaping attitudes of both male and female students preparing to enter the work force, while businesses can design intervention mechanisms to address the problem as it exists.

Perception of self as a working woman and freedom of choice to work are directly correlated to occupational attainment. Here again the education system can function as an intervention factor in providing the atmosphere for development of these attributes.

While not directly related to occupational status, the large percentage of the sample population without children affirms earlier findings of the postponing of child-bearing during crucial career-building stages. Although this is not strictly related to actions of the educational system, the system has the capability to provide information concerning feasible solutions to this conflict.

Regardless of occupational level, the respondent population expressed similar attitudes concerning the conflict faced by women in the work place. The overwhelming similarity of expressed attitudes is indicative of a shared value system for working women. This finding is extremely important for both education and business professionals.

Value systems and their impact on employee attitudes have become of major concern to employers over the last 15 years. Many of the findings in this area have shown that value systems of employees vary over age without regard for other population demographics. The outcomes of this study seem to contradict these trends, at least for women in the workforce. This shared value system concerning stipulated attitudes, if identified by employers, would demand a different emphasis when human resource professionals design programs to improve employee attitudes.

For the educational system, knowledge of this shared value system and awareness of the implications of these similar attitudes are equally important. School systems provide the ideal milieu to expose both boys and girls to the necessary value and attitudinal system leading to acceptance of women as full contributors in the work place and to enable women to develop the skills and attitudes integral to workforce competition. Perhaps most importantly, school curricula, in addition to value formulation, can create life situations on which choices of life style can be freely and honestly made.

Overall, the results of Tracking Working Women did not provide the results necessary to completely support the research hypotheses. On the other hand, the evidence uncovered is not strong enough to categorically reject those hypotheses. Despite this, information available from the research yields a firm basis from which strong recommendations can be made for school curricula and business programs oriented towards overcoming problems for working women.

4. Dissemination Activities Planned and/or Implemented

Throughout the course of this project many of the sources utilized as the basis for primary research and/or as resources for background information have expressed interest in the final study results. The study results will be distributed at this level. This dissemination will provide the means for many employers to become aware of the issues affecting working women. This will allow businesses to take action on the issues identified for women in the workforce.

School systems will be another major mechanism for distribution. Here, combined with the second stage of project activities, lies the greatest potential for change. The study results will be used to design a curriculum in conjunction with local school districts. The curriculum devised will be oriented towards future positive change through vocational education and school preparation.

Finally, additional dissemination is planned through inclusion in the resources of Columbia University's School of Adult and Higher Education and Rutgers University Graduate School of Management. Study findings included as resources in these depositories will potentially allow for further validation of results and/or further basis for study.

5. Strategies or Activities Employed to Eliminate Sex Bias and Sex Role Sterotyping

The very nature of this project is of one to eliminate sex-role bias and sex-role stereotyping. The research plan was to identify those aspects of barriers faced by working women in attaining success which could be addressed by the educational system. The two stages of this project were designed to identify (1981 funding) and prescribe (1982 funding).

C. Summary

1. Conclusions

There is strong evidence indicating the existence of patterns among working women. While the similarities discovered are not clearly related to occupational level as was initially hypothesized, they exist nonetheless.

At this point, a cautionary note must be introduced concerning the conclusions. The study's findings clearly apply to female members of the workforce, but extension of these findings to girls now progressing through school must take in account potential changes wrought by the "cohort effect." Some changes will be found as a result of modifications to schools' programming. Despite this, major changes such as those in attitudes will be slower to evolve and will require a more comprehensive approach. The values expressed are both held by women themselves and represent preceived values of men concerning working women. Additionally, many of these attitudes are reflective of core values, those most resistant and difficult to affect.

For women, vocational counseling, exposure to various occupational areas and encouragement to be involved in "non-traditional" areas of study and activities are important. Additionally, attitudinal changes are equally important and can only be totally affected by programs/curriculums designed to impact upon both men and women.

The home/work conflict is still prevalent for women. Programs and curriculums developed must emphasize choice, alternatives for family care and be presented to both boys and girls in the educational system.

Sexual harassment is another major problem faced by working women. While evidence is not found in the study to indicate that direct sexual harassment is prevalent, ample evidence exists to document many of the aspects of this issue. For both educators and employers this has implications as the impetus for attitudinal change in this area must come through policy decisions and implementation of training programs.

Overall, the study indicates that both the business and educational systems can take action to effectively remove some barriers facing working women. The great majority of the barriers identified are attitudinal in nature and resolvable through programs/curriculums in both systems. An additional consideration for business is the implication of a shared system of attitudes among working women.

2. Recommendations

As a result of the survey findings it is clear that certain actions need to be taken for people both in the workforce and in the educational system. Using these findings, it is recommended that the following steps be taken.

Analyze current school curricula designed to alleviate sex-bias and sex-role stereotyping in light of the study result. This will allow an evaluation of what is currently available to address the issues identified. It will also enable an identification of those elements missing and/or needing supplementation.

As a result of this analysis, develop curricula to incorporate into school systems to affect the future members of the workforce. To determine effectiveness of the new programs developed they should be field-tested and revised based on the results of the field test. Additionally, the final programs developed should be disseminated for potentially widespread impact.

Training packages for educational policymakers should also be developed. The purpose of this activity would be to create a level of awareness concerning the factors impacting on working women and the fact that changes need to come from a comprehensive approach applied to both boys and girls. Additionally, awareness of the power of direction provided by the school system needs to be understood and translated into vocational and career counseling curriculums that clearly allow for choice on the part of the students.

Training courses should be developed for business and industry focusing on removal of identified attitudinal barriers that prevent optimal use of women in the work place. Such programs should be directed towards both men and women in the work place as the value system of attitudes identified in the study also deals with perceived attitudes of men towards women.

As many of the issues identifed are resolvable through knowledge and commitment from policymakers and administrators, a conference to achieve this knowledge and commitment from policymakers and administrators, would be beneficial. The purpose of such a conference would be to disseminate findings and their implications to educational and business leaders and to provide these individuals with a training model appropriate to initiate change.

TABLE 1

Age Distribution of Respondent Population

	Number	Percentage
Under 25	18	13
25-30	135	25
31-40	154	28
41-50	103	19
Over 50	81	15
TOTAL	551	100

TABLE 2

Racial/Ethnic Distribution of Respondent Population

	Number	Percentage
Black	59	11
Hispanic	9	2
Caucasian	470	85
Other	13	2
TOTAL	551	100

TABLE 3

Educational Distribution of Respondent Population

	Number	Percentage
Less Than High School	11	2
High School	169	31
Business/Technical Training	-	-
	96	17
Two-Year Degree	88	16
Four-Year Degree	65	12
More Than Four-Year Degree	113	21
Unknown	9	1
TOTAL	551	100

TABLE 4

Number of Children

	Number	Percentage
None	275	50
One	71	13
Two	102	19
Three	53	9
More Than Three	50	9
TOTAL	551	100

TABLE 5

Distribution Of Respondents
By Occupational Classification

	Number	Percentage
Semi-Skilled	37	6.7
Skilled/Blue Collar	9	1.7
Sales/Clerical/Office Occupations	109	19.8
Technical/Skilled White Collar	184	33.4
Professionals	79	14.4
Professionals Requiring More Than 4-Year Degree	47	8.5
Supervisory/Managerial/ Executive	77	13.9
Not Classified	9	1.6
TOTAL	551	100

TABLE 6

Perceptions Of Sexual Harassment
In The Work Place

	Women Find It Difficult To Keep Relationships With Male Colleagues On Professional Level	Male Employees Find It Difficult To Keep Sex Out Of Relationships	Sexually Oriented Jokes Directed At Females By Males
Definitely/Largely Untrue	419	287	214
Somewhat True	107	163	201
Largely/Very True	25	101	136

TABLE 7

Age In Relationship To
Occupational Classification

Count Row % Col. %	Under 25	25-30	31-40	41-50	Over 50
Semi-Skilled	7 19.4 10.0	8 22.2 6.0	10 27.8 6.6	5 13.9 4.9	6 16.7 7.7
Skilled/Blue Collar	0 0.0 0.0	1 11.1 0.8	5 55.6 3.3	1 11.1 1.0	2 22.2 2.6
Sales/Office/Clerical	16 15.0 22.9	22 20.6 16.5	19 17.8 12.6	32 29.9 31.4	18 16.8 23.1
Technical/Skilled White Collar	32 17.5 45.7	53 29.0 39.8	44 24.0 29.1	24 13.1 23.5	30 16.4 38.5
Professionals	12 15.6 17.1	23 29.9 17.3	23 29.9 15.2	12 15.6 11.8	7 9.1 9.0
Professionals Requiring More Than 4-Year Degree	1 2.1 1.4	11 23.4 8.3	17 36.2 11.3	10 21.3 9.8	8 17.0 10.3
Supervisory/Managerial/ Executive	2 2.7 2.9	15 20.0 11.3	33 44.0 21.9	18 24.0 17.6	7 9.3 9.0

TABLE 8

Relationship of Occupational Classification To Parental Treatment Of Boys vs. Girls

	Boys & Girls Equal	Difference In Chores	Difference In Education	Difference In Toys
Semi-Skilled	11	11	1	2
Skilled/Blue Collar	4	1	1	0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	37	21	12	3
Technical/Skilled White Collar	74	25	16	4
Professional	26	13	4	2
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	18	6	4	1
Supervisory/Managerial/ Executive	29	13	4	2

TABLE 9

Occupational Classification In Relation To Education

	High School	Business/ Technology Training	2-Year Degree	4-Year Degree	More Than 4-Year Degree
Semi-Skilled	25	4	3	1	1
Skilled/Blue Collar	7	0	2	0	0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	62	29	11	2	4
Technical/Skilled White Collar	56	47	46	21	11
Professional	3	4	11	27	32
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	0	1	1	5	40
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	20	9	12	8	25

TABLE 10

Occupational Classification In
Relation To Major Area of Study

	Humanities & Social Sciences	Teaching & Guidance	Nursing & Secretarial	Math, Sciences And The Professions
Semi-Skilled	1	0	0	1
Skilled/Blue Collar	1	1	0	0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	11	4	0	1
Technical/Skilled White Collar	36	3	8	10
Professional	27	5	14	11
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	18	11	3	6
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	21	8	5	3

TABLE 11

Occupational Level In Relation To
Parents' Attitude Towards Education

	Strongly Favored	Somewhat Favored	Neutral	Somewhat Against	Strongly Against
Semi-Skilled	6	5	15	3	0
Skilled/Blue Collar	2	2	3	0	1
Office/Sales/ Clerical	33	18	34	10	4
Technical/Skilled White Collar	86	25	52	8	5
Professional	58	7	8	3	1
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	37	4	2	0	0
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	42	10	15	1	3

TABLE 12

Occupational Level In Relation To
To Husband's Attitude Towards Work

	Fully Favored	Somewhat Favored	No Preference	Somewhat Against	Strongly Against
Semi-Skilled	12	5	2	5	0
Skilled/Blue Collar	5	2	1	1	0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	50	13	8	11	5
Technical/Skilled White Collar	86	22	11	14	3
Professional	41	6	2	3	2
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	24	1	1	3	1
Supervising/ Managerial/ Executive	39	8	3	5	4

TABLE 13

Occupational Level In Relation To
Traditional/Non-Traditional Employment

	Traditional, Stereotyped	Semi-Traditional	Non-Traditional, Blue Collar	Non-Traditional, White Collar
Semi-Skilled	14	8	12	1
Skilled/Blue Collar	3	2	2	2
Office/Sales/ Clerical	96	9	0	3
Technical/Skilled White Collar	107	48	5	22
Professional	43	18	0	15
Professional Requireing 4-Year Degree +	12	8	0	27
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	30	12	3	30

TABLE 14

Occupational Classification In
Relation To Relations With Husband

	Very Adversely	Somewhat Adversely	No Affect	Somewhat Positively	Very Positively
Semi-Skilled	1	5	12	3	1
Skilled/Blue Collar	0	2	4	2	0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	4	18	30	14	13
Technical/Skilled White Collar	5	22	56	22	24
Professional	1	10	12	16	11
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	0	6	5	8	12
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	4	17	18	8	12

TABLE 15

Relation Of Occupational Status
To Speaking Ability

Count Row % Col. %	Exceptionally Good	Better Than Average	Average	Less Than Average
Semi-Skilled	10 28.6 7.1	8 22.9 10.2	16 45.7 3.8	1 2.9 6.7
Skilled/Blue Collar	1 11.1 .7	5 55.6 2.4	3 33.3 1.9	0 0.0 0.0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	26 24.3 17.3	42 39.3 20.2	38 35.5 24.2	1 0.9 7.1
Technical/Skilled White Collar	41 22.9 27.3	75 41.9 36.1	57 31.8 36.3	6 3.4 42.9
Professional	26 33.8 17.3	31 40.3 14.9	17 22.1 10.8	3 3.9 21.4
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	19 41.3 12.7	16 34.8 7.7	8 17.4 5.1	3 6.5 21.4
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	27 35.5 18.0	31 40.8 14.9	18 23.7 11.5	0 0.0 0.0

TABLE 16

Relation Of Occupational Status
Decision-Making Skills

Count Row % Col. %	Exceptionally Good	Better Than Average	Average	Less Than Average
Semi-Skilled	8 22.9 4.3	11 31.4 4.9	14 40.0 13.2	2 5.7 22.2
Skilled/Blue Collar	3 37.5 1.6	3 37.5 1.3	2 25.0 1.9	0 0.0 0.0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	32 29.0 16.8	42 39.3 18.7	31 29.0 29.2	3 2.8 33.3
Technical/Skilled White Collar	56 31.3 30.3	87 48.6 38.7	34 19.0 32.1	2 1.1 22.2
Professional	23 30.7 12.4	38 50.7 16.9	13 17.3 12.3	1 1.3 11.1
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	26 56.5 14.1	16 34.8 7.1	3 6.5 2.8	1 2.2 11.1
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	38 50.7 20.5	28 37.3 12.4	9 12.0 8.5	0 0.0 0.0

TABLE 17

Relation Of Occupational Status
To Waiting Ability

Count Row % Col. %	Exceptionally Good	Better Than Average	Average	Less Than Average
Semi-Skilled	9 25.7 5.5	6 17.1 3.2	20 57.1 11.8	0 0.0 0.0
Skilled/Blue Collar	3 33.3 1.8	2 22.2 1.1	4 44.4 2.4	0 0.0 0.0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	31 28.7 18.8	37 34.3 19.6	38 35.2 22.5	2 1.9 22.2
Technical/Skilled White Collar	51 28.2 30.9	67 37.0 35.4	58 32.0 34.3	5 2.8 55.6
Professional	24 31.2 14.5	33 42.9 17.5	19 24.7 11.2	1 1.3 11.1
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	22 47.8 13.3	17 37.0 9.0	7 15.2 4.1	0 0.0 0.0
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	25 32.9 15.2	27 35.5 14.3	23 30.3 13.6	1 1.3 11.1

TABLE 18

Relation Of Occupational Status
To Leadership Ability

Count Row % Col. %	Exceptionally Good	Better Than Average	Average	Less Than Average
Semi-Skilled	7 19.4 4.2	9 25.0 4.5	16 44.4 11.5	4 11.1 21.1
Skilled/Blue Collar	4 44.4 2.4	0 0.0 0.0	5 55.6 3.6	0 0.0 0.0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	26 24.3 15.5	35 32.7 17.6	41 38.3 29.5	5 4.7 26.3
Technical/Skilled White Collar	48 27.1 28.6	68 38.4 34.2	53 29.9 38.1	8 4.5 42.1
Professional	27 36.5 16.1	29 39.2 14.6	16 21.6 11.5	2 2.7 10.5
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	18 39.1 10.7	22 47.8 11.1	6 13.0 4.0	0 0.0 0.0
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	38 50.0 22.6	36 47.4 18.1	2 2.6 1.4	0 0.0 0.0

TABLE 19

Relation of Occupational Status
To Problem-Solving Abilities

Count Row % Col. %	Exceptionally Good	Better Than Average	Average	Less Than Average
Semi-Skilled	11 31.4 5.3	12 39.3 5.3	10 28.6 11.5	2 5.7 33.3
Skilled/Blue Collar	4 44.4 1.9	2 22.2 0.9	3 33.3 3.3	0 0.0 0.0
Office/Sales/ Clerical	30 27.8 14.6	50 46.3 22.0	26 24.1 28.9	2 1.9 33.3
Technical/Skilled White Collar	57 31.5 27.7	89 49.2 39.2	34 18.8 37.8	1 0.6 16.7
Professional	33 44.6 16.0	31 41.9 13.7	10 13.5 11.1	0 0.0 0.0
Professional Requiring 4-Year Degree +	28 60.9 13.6	17 37.0 7.5	0 0.0 0.0	1 2.2 16.7
Supervisory/ Managerial/ Executive	43 56.6 20.9	26 34.2 11.5	7 9.2 7.8	0 0.0 0.0

TABLE 20

Responses On Attitudinal Questions

	Definitely/ Largely Untrue	Somewhat True	Largely/ Very True
Women must be "doubly smart" to compete for career advancement.	114 20%	236 43%	198 36%
On important policy decisions women are consulted less often than males.	181 33%	187 34%	162 29%
My capabilities are not fully utilized.	160 29%	159 29%	225 40%
Sometimes I wish I was born a different person.	395 72%	101 18%	47 9%
Having children and a job do not go together well.	258 47%	151 27%	89 16%
Women are not paid equally.	121 22%	170 31%	243 44%
Women managers are considered administrators.	291 53%	158 29%	85 15%
Men resent working under female supervisors.	93 17%	240 44%	201 37%
Female employees put in as many hours of work as males.	40 7%	69 13%	432 79%
A working woman gets more respect than a non-working woman.	167 30%	192 35%	187 34%
Employers do not expect women to work for them as long as men do.	147 27%	197 36%	195 36%
Working women do not have as happy a family life as non-working women.	442 80%	73 13%	20 4%

NOTE: Percentages are not always equal to 100% due to non-responses.

TABLE 21

Case Study Respondents By Age

	Number	Percentage
25-30	10	40
31-40	8	32
41-50	6	24
Over 50	1	4
TOTAL	25	100

TABLE 22

Case Study Respondents By Race/Ethnicity

	Number	Percentage
Black	3	18
Caucasian	22	88
TOTAL	25	100

TABLE 23

Education Of Case Study Participants

	Number	Percentage
High School	2	8
Two-Year Degree	1	4
Four-Year Degree	4	16
More Than Four-Year Degree	18	72
TOTAL	25	100

TABLE 24

Respondents By High School Area Of Study

	Number	Percentage
Humanities	22	88
Commercial	3	12
TOTAL	25	100

TABLE 25

Respondents By Experience With Sexual Harassment

	Number	Percentage
Yes	21	84
No	4	16
TOTAL	25	100

TABLE 26

Respondents By Experience With Sex Discrimination

	Number	Percentage
Yes	23	92
No	1	4
No Response	1	4
TOTAL	25	100

TABLE 27

Respondents By Reasons For Working

	Number	Percentage
Sole Income	11	44
Self-Fulfillment	13	52
Power	1	4
TOTAL	25	100

TRACKING WORKING WOMEN

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